

IMPORTANT POINTS -SSC

I. ECONOMICS:-

A. MONEY AND CREDIT

1. Overview

- a) Money is a fascinating subject.
- b) Modern forms of money are linked to the banking system.
- c) Functions of money.
- d) Creation of money.
- e) Credit is a crucial element in economic life.
- f) Another crucial issue of credit is its availability to all.

2. Money as a medium of exchange

- a) Money is used as a medium of exchange. In the modern economy, money works as an intermediary. It is used as a medium of exchange for goods and services. It is also used for payment of debts.
- b) Money replaced the barter system. Before the introduction of money, Indians used grains and cattle as money. In a barter system, selling and purchasing of goods and services was done with "double coincidence of wants". It was also known as commodity economy.

3. Modern form of money

a) Currency

- (1) Modern forms of money include currency — paper notes and coins. Modern coins are not made with precious metals like gold, silver. The real values of the modern coins are less than its face value. Currency notes are also used as a medium of exchange in the modern economy.

The currency notes are made with paper. The real value of the currency notes is less than its face value.

- (2) The currency is authorised by the government of the country. So, it is used as a medium of exchange and accepted by others. In India, the Reserve bank of India has authority to issue currency notes on behalf of the central government. In India, no individual can legally refuse to accept the rupees issued by the Reserve bank of India.

b) Deposits with Banks

- (1) Deposits with Banks are also a form of money. A person can deposit in the bank by opening an account on his/her name. People need only some money at a point of time. So, people can deposit extra money and earn extra money, which is given on money already deposited in the bank.
- (2) A facility of payment through cheque is also provided by the bank to their customers. Cheque works as an instrument for payment which is made by the paper. A person can directly transfer money to another person through cheque rather than in cash.

4. Loan activities of bank

- (1) Banks work as mediators between the depositors and the borrowers. People deposit their money in the bank and get some rate of interest as extra income. Banks hold only some percentage of their deposits in banks.
- (2) A major portion of the deposited money is provided to those people who are needy of money for economic activities. In this case, money is provided as a loan with a higher rate of interest. The difference between interest on borrowing money and the interest of deposited money is the income for the bank.

5. Two different credit situations.

(1) Credit is an agreement which is created when a person gives money and goods to the needy person with the promise of repaying that with some rate of interest.

(2) There are two types of credit situations

(a) In the first situation, a person borrows money for production activities with the promise to repay the loan at the end of the year when production work will be completed. And at the end of the year, he/she makes a good profit from production activities and he/she is able to pay the amount of loan. Therefore, that person becomes better off than before.

(b) In the second situation, a person borrows money for production activities with the promise to repay the loan at the end of the year when production work will be completed. And at the end of the year he/she is unable to repay the loan due to loss in production. For this term, he/she comes under the situation of debt trap. Therefore, that person becomes worse off than before.

6. Terms of credit.

a) The interest rate, collateral and some documents fulfil the requirements of the terms of credit. Interest rate is specified when a lender provides a loan to the borrowers. A borrower will have to repay the amount taken from the lenders with the amount of interest. In some cases, lenders may demand collateral against loans. Collateral is an asset of the borrowers which is given to the lenders as security for the specified

period. A lender can use the assets which are held by him as security until the amount of loan is repaid. The lender has the right to sell the assets or collateral when the borrower fails to repay the amount of loan in a specified period.

7. Formal sector credit in India

There are two types of sources of credit in an economy.

a) Formal sector

(1) In the formal sector, loans from banks and cooperatives are included.

b) Informal sector

(1) In the Informal sector, loans from moneylenders, traders, employers, relatives and friends are included.

(2) As we know, a major portion of the deposited money is provided to those people who are in need of money for economic activities. In India Reserve bank of India is supervised the functioning of loan activities in formal sectors. In India, the rate of interest in the informal sector is greater than the rate of interest in the formal sector. Rate of interest in the formal sector is supervised by the legal authorities.

(3) In the Informal sector, the rate of interest is supervised by moneylenders, traders, employers who are provided money. The rate of interest is varying from person to person. There is no organisation for supervising loans in the informal sector. Lenders can use any method to get back their money from the borrowers. Sometimes, the incomes of the borrowers become less compared to the amount which has to be paid due to the high rate of interest.

8. Self-help groups for the poor

- a) Facilities of banks are not available in all rural areas. So, the poor are dependent on the informal sector for borrowing loans. The poor have to pay a high rate of interest to the moneylenders. It is difficult to borrow from the bank. Because of the absence of the collateral and documents. And documents and collateral are required for a bank loan. Informal lenders like, moneylenders are often willing to give a loan without collateral because they personally knew the borrowers.
- b) An organisation constituted to collect the savings of the poor which is known as a self-help group. The aim of the organisation is to lend loans at a lower rate of interest compared to the rate of interest specified by the moneylenders. A self-help group has 15 – 20 members. Savings vary from member to member i.e Rs. 25 to Rs. 100 depending on the ability of the person to save.
- c) The organisation also provides self-employment opportunities for the members by way of sanctioning the group. For example, small loans are provided to the members for releasing mortgaged land, for meeting working capital needs, for housing materials, for acquiring assets. There is also a group for repayment of loans. In case of any non-repayment by the one member is followed by the other member of the organisation.

B. GLOBALISATION AND THE INDIAN ECONOMY

1. Production Across Countries

- a) Trade was the main channel connecting distant countries. Large companies, which are now called Multinational Corporations (MNCs) play a major role in trade. An MNC is a company that owns or controls production in more than one nation. MNCs set up offices and factories for production in regions where they can get cheap labour and other resources so that the company can earn greater profits.

2. Interlinking Production Across Countries

The money that is spent to buy assets such as land, building, machines and other equipment is called investment. An investment made by MNCs is called **foreign investment**. MNCs are exerting a strong influence on production at these distant locations. As a result, production in these widely dispersed locations is getting interlinked.

There are a variety of ways as mentioned below, in which MNCs are spreading their production and interacting with local producers in various countries across the globe.

By setting up partnerships with local companies

By using the local companies for supplies

By closely competing with the local companies or buying them up

MNCs set up production jointly with local companies which benefits local companies in the following ways:

First, MNCs can provide money for additional investments, like buying new machines for faster production.

Second, MNCs might bring with them the latest technology for production.

3. Foreign Trade and Integration of Markets

Foreign trade creates an opportunity for the producers to reach beyond the domestic markets. Producers can sell their products not only in markets located within the country but can also compete in markets located in other countries of the world. Similarly, buyers have the option to choose among various goods beyond domestically produced goods. Thus, foreign trade results in connecting the markets or integration of markets in different countries.

4. What is Globalisation

Globalisation is the process of rapid integration or interconnection of countries. MNCs are playing a major role in the globalisation process.

More and more goods and services, investments and technology are moving between countries.

There is one more way in which the countries can be connected. This is through the movement of people between countries.

5. Factors that have Enabled Globalisation

a) Technology:

(1) Rapid improvement in technology has been one major factor that has stimulated the globalisation process. This has made possible much faster delivery of goods across long distances at lower costs. The developments in information and communication technology have made information instantly accessible.

b) Liberalisation of Foreign Trade and Foreign Investment Policy

(1) Trade barriers are some restrictions that have been set up by governments. The government can use trade barriers to increase or decrease (regulate) foreign trade and to decide what kinds of goods and how much of each, should come into the country. Tax on imports is an example of a trade barrier.

(2) Removing barriers or restrictions set by the government on trade is known as liberalisation. When the government imposes less restrictions than before, it is said to be more liberal.

6. World Trade Organisation

a) World Trade Organisation (WTO) is an organisation whose aim is to liberalise international trade. At present, 164 countries of the world are

currently members of the WTO. It has established rules for developed countries regarding international trade so that these countries can allow free trade for all.

7. Impact of Globalisation in India

a) Globalisation has impacted the lives of people in India in the following manner:

- (1) It has provided greater choices to consumers who now enjoy improved quality of and lower prices on several products.
- (2) It has resulted in higher standards of living.
- (3) Globalisation has also created new opportunities for companies providing services, particularly in the IT sector.

8. The Struggle for a Fair Globalisation

a) Fair globalisation creates opportunities for all and also ensures that the benefits of globalisation are shared better. The government can play a major role in making this possible.

b) Some of the steps that the government take are:

- (1) It can ensure that labour laws are properly implemented and the workers get their rights.
- (2) It can support small producers to improve their performance.
- (3) If necessary, the government can use trade and investment barriers.
- (4) It can negotiate at the WTO for 'fairer rules'.
- (5) It can also align with other developing countries with similar interests to fight against the domination of developed countries in the WTO.

II. GEOGRAPHY:-

A. MINERALS AND ENERGY RESOURCES (ONLY MAP)

1. Maps

B. MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

a) Introduction.

- (1) Production of goods in large quantities after processing from raw materials to more valuable products is called manufacturing.
- (2) Manufacturing industries fall in the secondary sector.
 - (a) → The economic strength of a country is measured by the development of manufacturing industries.

b) Importance of Manufacturing.

- (1) Manufacturing sector is considered as the backbone of development in general and economic development because:
 - (a) → It helps in modernising agriculture, which forms the backbone of our economy. Also, reduce the heavy dependence of people on agricultural income by providing them jobs in secondary and tertiary sectors.
 - (b) → It helps in eradication of unemployment and poverty from the country.
 - (c) → Export of manufactured goods brings foreign exchange.
 - (d) → It helps in transforming raw materials into a wide variety of furnished goods of higher value.

c) Agriculture and Industry.

- (1) Agriculture and industry are dependent on each other.

(a) → Industries give a major boost to agriculture by raising its productivity by providing their tools and products such as fertilisers etc.

(b) → Industry depends on agriculture for raw materials and sells their products such as irrigation pumps, fertilisers, insecticides, pesticides, plastic and PVC pipes, machines and tools, etc. to the farmers.

d) Contribution of Industry to National Economy

(1) The contribution of Industry in the GDP is very low in India as compared to East Asian economies.

(2) The National Manufacturing Competitiveness Council (NMCC) has been set up by the government to take appropriate policy measures to improve the productivity of the manufacturing sector.

e) Industrial Location

(1) Industrial locations are influenced by the availability of raw material, labour, capital, power and market.

(2) After industrial activity starts, urbanisation follows.

(3) Cities provide markets and also provide services such as banking, insurance, transport, labour, consultants and financial advice, etc. to the industry.

(4) Many industries tend to come together to make use of the advantages offered by the urban centres known as agglomeration economies.

f) Classification of Industry

(1) On the basis of source of raw materials used:

(a) → Agro based

(b) → Mineral based

(2) According to their main role:

(a) → Basic or key industries which supply their products or raw materials to manufacture other goods e.g. iron and steel and copper smelting.

(b) → Consumer industries that produce goods for direct use by consumers – sugar, toothpaste.

(3) On the basis of capital investment:

(a) → Small scale industry: Such industry which requires the maximum investment up to rupees one crore. It employs a small number of labourers.

(b) → Large scale industry: If investment is more than one crore in any industry then it is known as a large scale industry.

(4) On the basis of ownership:

(a) → Public sector: Industries which are owned and operated by government agencies – BHEL, SAIL etc.

(b) → Private sector: Industries owned and operated by individuals or a group of individuals – TISCO, Bajaj Auto Ltd Dabur Industries.

(c) → Joint sector: Industries which are jointly run by the state and individuals or a group of individuals. Oil India Ltd. (OIL) is jointly owned by the public and private sector.

(d) → Cooperative sector: Industries are owned and operated by the producers or suppliers of raw materials, workers or both.

(5) Based on the bulk and weight of raw material and finished goods:

- (a) → Heavy industries such as iron and steel
- (b) → Light industries that use light raw materials and produce light goods such as electrical industries.

C. Lifelines of the national economy

1. Introduction

- (1) The pace of development of a country depends upon the production of goods and services as well as their movement over space.
- (2) Movement of goods and services can be over three important domains of our earth:
 - (a) → Land,
 - (b) → Water
 - (c) → Air
- (3) There are five transport systems in India:
 - (a) → Roadways
 - (b) → Railways
 - (c) → Airways
 - (d) → Waterways
 - (e) → Pipelines
- (4) With the development in science and technology, the area of influence of trade and transport increased. Transport Roadways
- (5) India has one of the largest road networks in the world, totaling to about 2.3 million km at present.
- (6) Advantages of roadways over railways:
 - (a) → Construction cost of roads is much lower than that of railway lines,

- (b) → Roads can traverse comparatively more dissected and undulating topography
- (c) → Roads can negotiate higher gradients of slopes and as such can traverse mountains such as the Himalayas.
- (d) → Road transport is economical in transportation of few persons and relatively smaller amounts of goods over short distances.
- (e) → It also provides door-to-door service, thus the cost of loading and unloading is much lower,
- (f) → Road transport is also used as a feeder to other modes of transport such as they provide a link between railway stations, air and sea ports.

(7) Roads are categorised into six classes:

- (a) → Golden Quadrilateral Super Highways: The project was launched by the government to link Delhi-Kolkata-Chennai-Mumbai and Delhi by six-lane Super Highways. The major objective of these Super Highways is to reduce the time and distance between the mega cities of India. These highway projects are being implemented by the National Highway Authority of India (NHAI).
- (b) → National Highways: These are the primary road systems and are laid and maintained by the Central Public Works Department (CPWD).
- (c) → State Highways: Roads linking a state capital with different district headquarters are known as State Highways. These are constructed and maintained by the

State Public Works Department (PWD) in State and Union Territories.

- (d) → District Roads: These roads connect the district headquarters with other places of the district. These roads are maintained by the Zila Parishad.
- (e) → Other Roads: Rural roads, which link rural areas and villages with towns, are classified under this category.
- (f) → Border Roads: Border Roads Organisation constructs and maintains roads in the bordering areas of the country. This organisation was established in 1960 for the development of the roads of strategic importance in the northern and north-eastern border areas.

(8) Classification of Roads on the basis of the type of material used for their construction:

- (a) → Metalled roads: These roads may be made of cement, concrete or even bitumen of coal.
- (b) → Unmetalled roads: Roads made up of mud and gravel which are generally found in the rural areas.

(9) Road Density:

- (a) The length of road per 100 sq. km of area is known as Road Density.
- (b) Density of all roads varies from only 10.04 km in Jammu and Kashmir to 532.27 km in Uttar Pradesh.
- (c) The national average is 125.02 km.

(10) Problems of Road Transportation:

- (a) → About half of the roads are unmetalled which limits their usage during the rainy season.

- (b) → The National Highways are inadequate too.
- (c) → The roadways are highly congested in cities.
- (d) → Most of the bridges and culverts are old and narrow.

(11) Railways.

- (a) Railways are the principal mode of transportation for freight and passengers in India.
- (b) It makes it possible to conduct multifarious activities like business, sightseeing, pilgrimage along with transportation of goods over longer distances.
- (c) The Indian Railway has a network of 7,133 stations spread over a route length of 64,460 km with a fleet of 9,213 locomotives, 53,220 passenger service vehicles, 6,493 other coach vehicles and 2,29,381 wagons as on March 2011.
- (d) The Indian Railway is now reorganised into 16 zones. But at present there are 19
- (e) The distribution pattern of the Railway network in the country has been largely influenced by physiographic, economic and administrative factors.
- (f) The railways have become more important in our national economy than all other means of transport put together.

(12) Problems in Railway Transportation:

- (a) → Many passengers travel without tickets.
- (b) → Thefts and damages of railway property have not yet stopped completely.

- (c) → People stop the trains, pull the chain unnecessarily and this causes heavy damage to the railway.

(13) Pipelines

- (a) Pipeline transport network is new in India.
- (b) These are used for transporting crude oil, petroleum products and natural gas from oil and natural gas fields to refineries, fertiliser factories and big thermal power plants.
- (c) There are three important networks of pipeline transportation in the country.
 - (i) → From oil fields in upper Assam to Kanpur (Uttar Pradesh), via Guwahati, Barauni and Allahabad. It has branches from Barauni to Haldia, via Rajbandh, Rajbandh to Maurigram and Guwahati to Siliguri.
 - (ii) → From Salaya in Gujarat to Jalandhar in Punjab, via Viramgam, Mathura, Delhi and Sonapat. It has branches connecting Koyali (near Vadodara, Gujarat) , Chakshu and other places.
 - (iii) → Gas pipeline from Hazira in Gujarat connects Jagdishpur in Uttar Pradesh, via Vijaipur in Madhya Pradesh. It has branches to Kota in Rajasthan, Shahjahanpur, Babrala and other places in Uttar Pradesh.

(14) Waterways

- (a) Waterways are the cheapest means of transport.

- (b) → They are most suitable for carrying heavy and bulky goods.
- (c) → It is a fuel-efficient and environmentally friendly mode of transport.
- (d) India has inland navigation waterways of 14,500 km in length.
- (e) Waterways that have been declared as the National Waterways by the Government are:
 - (i) → The Ganga river between Allahabad and Haldia (1620 km)-N.W. No.1
 - (ii) → The Brahmaputra river between Sadiya and Dhubri (891 km)-N.W. No.2
 - (iii) → The West-Coast Canal in Kerala (Kottapuram-Kollam, Udyogamandal and Champakkara canals-205 km) – N.W. No.3
 - (iv) → Specified stretches of Godavari and Krishna rivers along with Kakinada Puducherry stretch of canals (1078 km) – N.W. No.4
 - (v) → Specified stretches of river Brahmani along with Matai river, delta channels of Mahanadi and Brahmani rivers and East Coast Canal (588 km) – N.W. No.5.
- (f) India's trade with foreign countries is carried from the ports located along the coast.
- (g) 95 percent of the country's trade volume (68 percent in terms of value) is moved by sea.

(15) Major Sea Ports.

- (a) India has a long coastline of 7,516.6 km with 12 major and 187, minor or intermediate ports.
- (b) The major ports handle 95 per cent of India's foreign trade.
- (c) Mumbai is the biggest port with a spacious natural and well-sheltered harbour.

(16) Sea Ports in India

(a) Ports on the western coast.

- (i) Kandla port.
- (ii) Mumbai port.
- (iii) The Jawaharlal Nehru port.
- (iv) Mormugao port.
- (v) New Mangalore port

(b) Ports on the eastern coast.

- (i) Tuticorin port.
- (ii) Chennai port.
- (iii) Visakhapatnam port.
- (iv) Paradip port.
- (v) Kolkata port.
- (vi) Haldia port

(17) Airways.

- (a) Airways fastest, most comfortable and prestigious mode of transport.
- (b) → It can cover very difficult terrains like high mountains, dreary deserts, dense forests and also long oceanic stretches with great ease.

- (c) The air transport was nationalised in 1953.
- (d) Indian Airlines, Alliance Air, private scheduled airlines and non-scheduled operators provide domestic air services.
- (e) Pawan Hans Helicopters Ltd. provides helicopter services to Oil and Natural Gas Commission in its offshore operations, to inaccessible areas and difficult terrains.
- (f) There are two types of airports in India:
 - (i) → International
 - (ii) → Domestic

(18) Communication

- (a) The means of communication are of two types:
 - (i) → Personal communication: It includes postcards, letters, telegrams, telephones and emails.
 - (ii) → Mass communication: It includes magazines, newspapers, radio, television, press and films.
- (b) Personal written communications: Indian postal network is the largest in the world.
 - (i) → First-class mail: They are airlifted between stations covering both land and air. Cards and envelopes.
 - (ii) → Second-class mail: They are carried by surface mail, covering land and water transport. Bookpackets, registered newspapers and periodicals.

- (c) India has one of the largest telecom networks in Asia.
- (d) Mass communication provides entertainment and creates awareness among people about various national programmes and policies.

(i) → Radio: All India Radio (Akashwani) broadcasts a variety of programmes in national, regional and local languages for various categories of people, spread over different parts of the country.

(ii) → Television: Doordarshan, the national television channel of India, is one of the largest terrestrial networks in the world.

(iii) → Magazines: India publishes a large number of newspapers and periodicals annually.

(iv) → Films: India is the largest producer of feature films in the world.

(19) International Trade

(a) Trade: The exchange of goods among people, states and countries is referred to as trade.

(b) Market: The market is the place where such exchanges take place.

(c) International Trade: Trade between two countries is called international trade.

(i) → It may take place through sea, air or land routes.

(20) Balance of trade:

(a) The balance of trade of a country is the difference between its export and import.

(b) Favourable balance of trade: When the value of export exceeds the value of imports, it is called a favourable balance of trade.

(21) Unfavourable balance of trade:

(a) When the value of imports exceeds the value of exports, it is called an unfavourable balance of trade.

(22) Tourism as a Trade

(a) Foreign tourist's arrivals in the country witnessed an increase of 11.8 percent during the year 2010 as against the year 2009, contributing Rs 64,889 crore of foreign exchange in 2010.

(b) More than 15 million people are directly engaged in the tourism industry.

(23) Importance of Tourism

(a) Tourism promotes national integration, provides support to local handicrafts and cultural pursuits.

(b) It also helps in the development of international understanding about our culture and heritage.

III. HISTORY:-

A. NATIONALISM IN INDIA

1. Introduction

a) Modern nationalism was associated with the formation of nation-states.

b) In India like many other colonies, the growth of modern nationalism is connected to the anti-colonial movement.

2. The First World War, Khilafat and Non-Cooperation

- a) The First World War (1914-1918) created a new political and economic situation.
- b) India faced various problems during the war period
 - (1) → Increase in defence expenditure.
 - (2) → Prices increased through the war years.
 - (3) → Forced recruitment in rural areas.
- c) During 1918-19 and 1920-21, crops failed in many parts of India.
- d) Hardships did not end after the war was over.

3. The Idea of Satyagraha

- a) Satyagraha is a novel way of fighting the colonial rule in India.
 - (1) → It is a non-aggressive, peaceful mass agitation against oppression and injustice.
 - (2) Satyagraha means insistence on truth.
 - (3) It is a moral force, not passive resistance.
 - (4) In January 1915, Mahatma Gandhi returned to India.
 - (5) Gandhiji organised Satyagraha Movements in Champaran, Bihar (1916), Kheda district of Gujarat (1917) and amongst cotton mill workers in Ahmedabad (1918).
- b) The Rowlatt Act (1919).
 - (1) This act gave the government enormous powers to repress political activities and allowed detention of political prisoners without trial for two years.
- c) Jallianwala Bagh massacre
 - (1) On 13th April 1919, a huge crowd gathered in the enclosed ground of Jallianwalla Bagh.
 - (2) Dyer entered the area, blocked the exit points, and opened fire on the crowd, killing hundreds.

(3) As the news spread, strikes, clashes with the police and attacks on government buildings started.

(4) The government responded with brutal repression.

(5) Gandhi called off the Rowlatt satyagraha as the violence spread.

d) Khilafat Movement.

(1) Khilafat Movement was led by two brothers Shaukat Ali and Muhammad Ali.

(2) Khilafat Committee was formed in Bombay in March 1919 to defend the Khalifa's temporal powers.

(3) Gandhiji convinced the Congress to join hands with the Khilafat Movement and start a Non-Cooperation Campaign for Swaraj.

(4) At the Congress session at Nagpur in December 1920, the Non-Cooperation programme was adopted.

e) Differing strands within the movement.

(1) The Non-Cooperation-Khilafat Movement began in January 1921.

f) The Movement in the Towns.

(1) It started with middle class participation in cities.

(2) Students, teachers, lawyers gave up studies, jobs, legal practices and joined movements.

(3) Council elections were boycotted.

(4) Foreign goods were boycotted.

(5) Liquor shops were picketed.

g) Movement in the countryside.

(1) Peasants and tribals took over the struggle which turned violent gradually.

h) Peasant Movement in Awadh.

- (1) The peasants were led by Baba Ramchandra in Awadh against landlords and talukdars.
- (2) In 1920, the Oudh Kisan Sabha was set up headed by Jawaharlal Nehru, Baba Ramchandra and a few others.

i) Movement of Tribals in Andhra Pradesh

- (1) Alluri Sitaram Raju led the guerrilla warfare in the Gudem Hills of Andhra Pradesh.
- (2) The rebels attacked police stations.
- (3) Raju was captured and executed in 1924.

j) Swaraj in the Plantations

- (1) For the plantation workers, Swaraj means moving freely.
- (2) They protested against the Inland Emigration Act (1859) which prevented them from leaving the plantation without permission.
- (3) Each group interpreted the term swaraj in their own ways.

k) Towards Civil Disobedience

- (1) In February 1922, Mahatma Gandhi decided to withdraw the Non-Cooperation Movement.
- (2) Many leaders such as C. R. Das and Motilal Nehru formed the Swaraj Party within the Congress to argue for a return to council politics.
- (3) Younger leaders like Jawaharlal Nehru and Subhas Chandra Bose pressed for more radical mass agitation and for full independence.

l) Factors that shaped Indian politics towards the late 1920s

- (1) The Worldwide Economic Depression
 - (a) → Agricultural prices collapsed after 1930 as the demand for agricultural goods fell and exports declined.
- (2) Simon Commission

- (a) → It was constituted by the Tory government of Britain to look into the demands of the nationalists and suggest changes in the constitutional structure of India.
- (b) → The Commission arrived in India in 1928.
- (c) → The Congress protested against this commission.
- (3) In December, 1929, under the presidency of Jawaharlal Nehru, the Lahore session of Congress formalised the demand of "Purna Swaraj".
- m) The Salt March and the Civil Disobedience Movement
 - (1) Gandhi-ji chose salt as the medium that could unite the nation as it is consumed by all the sections of the society.
 - (2) Salt March
 - (a) Salt or Dandi March began on March 12, 1930.
 - (i) → On 6th April 1930, Gandhi-ji reached Dandi, a village in Gujarat and broke the Salt Law by boiling water and manufacturing salt.
 - (ii) → Thus, it began the Civil Disobedience Movement.
 - (b) It was different from the Non-Cooperation Movement as people were now asked not only to refuse cooperation but also to break colonial laws.
 - (c) Boycott of foreign goods, non-payment of taxes, breaking forest laws were its main features.
 - (d) The British Government followed a policy of brutal repression.
 - (e) The British government arrested all the leaders including Gandhiji and Nehru.
 - (f) Mahatma Gandhi called off the movement.

n) Gandhi-Irwin Pact.

- (1) On 5 March 1931, Lord Irwin, the Viceroy, signed a pact with Gandhi.*
- (2) In December, 1931, Gandhiji went to London for the Second Round Table Conference but returned disappointed.*
- (3) Gandhi relaunched the Civil Disobedience Movement but by 1934 it lost its momentum.*

o) How Participants saw the Movement

(1) Rich peasants.

- (a) Rich peasant communities expected the revenue tax to be reduced, when the British refused to do so, they did join the movement.*
- (b) → They did not rejoin the movement as the movement was called without revising the revenue rates.*

(2) Poor Peasants.

- (a) The poor peasants wanted rents of lands to be remitted.*
- (b) → The Congress was unwilling to support the “no rent” campaigns due to the fear of upsetting the rich peasants and landlords.*

(3) Business Classes.

- (a) After the war, their huge profits were reduced, and they wanted protection against import of foreign goods.*
- (b) → The spread of militant activities, worries of prolonged business disruptions, growing influences of socialism amongst the young Congress forced them not to join the movement.*

(4) Women

- (a) Women also participated in protest marches, manufactured salt, and picketed foreign cloth and liquor shops.
- (b) → Congress was reluctant to allow women to hold any position of authority within the organisation.

(5) Limits of Civil Disobedience

- (a) The Dalits or the Untouchables did not actively participate in the movement, they demanded reservation of seats, and separate electorates.
- (b) Dr B.R. Ambedkar, the leader of the Dalits, formed an association in 1930, called the Depressed Classes Association.
- (c) He clashed with Gandhi-ji.
- (d) Poona Pact between the Gandhi-ji and B.R. Ambedkar (1932) gave reserved seats in Provincial and Central Councils but were voted by the general electorate.
- (e) The leader of the Muslim League M.A. Jinnah wanted reserved seats for Muslims in the Central Assembly.
 - (i) → Large sections of Muslims did not participate in the Civil disobedience movement.

(6) The Sense of Collective Belonging

- (a) The sense of collective belonging came partly through the experience of united struggles.

(b) History and fiction, folklore and songs, popular prints and symbols, all played a part in the making of nationalism.

(c) By 1921, Gandhiji had designed the Swaraj flag. It was again a tricolour (red, green and white) and had a spinning wheel in the centre.

IV. CIVICS:-

A. POLITICAL PARTIES

1. Why do we need Political Parties?

a) Meaning of Political Party.

(1) A political party is a group of people who come together to contest elections and hold power in the government.

b) Functions of a Political Party.

(1) Parties contest elections.

(2) Parties put forward different policies and programmes and the voters choose from them. A party reduces a vast number of opinions into a few basic positions which it supports.

(3) Parties play a decisive role in making laws for a country. Parties form and run governments.

(4) Those parties that lose in the elections play the role of opposition to the parties in power.

2. How many Parties should we have?

a) There are three types of party system a country can have.

(1) One Party System.

(a) Only one party is allowed to control and run the government.

(2) Two Party System.

(a) Power usually changes between two main parties.

(3) Multi-Party System

(a) Several parties compete for power, and more than two parties have a reasonable chance of coming to power either on their own strength or in alliance with others.

3. Election Commission

- a) Every party in India has to register with the Election Commission.
- b) The Commission treats every party as equal to the others, but it offers special facilities to large and established parties.
- c) They are given a unique symbol and are called, "recognised political parties."

4. State Parties

- a) A party that secures at least six percent of the total votes in an election to the Legislative Assembly of a State and wins at least two seats is recognised as a State party.

5. National Parties

- a) A party that secures at least six percent of the total votes in Lok Sabha elections or Assembly elections in four States and wins at least four seats in the Lok Sabha is recognised as a national party.

b) Indian National Congress (INC)

- (1) Popularly known as the Congress Party.
- (2) Founded in 1885.
- (3) Played a dominant role in Indian politics, at the national and state level for several decades after India's Independence.

c) Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP)

(1) Founded in 1980 by reviving the erstwhile Bharatiya Jana Sangh.
Cultural nationalism (or 'Hindutva') is an important element in its origination of Indian nationhood and politics.

(2) Wants full territorial and political integration of Jammu and Kashmir with India.

d) Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP).

(1) Formed in 1984 under the leadership of Kanshi Ram.

(2) Seeks to represent and secure power for the bahujan samaj which includes the dalits, adivasis, OBCs and religious minorities.

e) Communist Party of India - Marxist (CPI-M).

(1) Founded in 1964.

(2) Believes in Marxism- Leninism.

(3) Supports socialism, secularism and democracy and opposes imperialism and communalism.

f) Communist Party of India (CPI).

(1) Formed in 1925.

(2) Believes in Marxism-Leninism, secularism and democracy. Nationalist Congress Party (NCP).

(3) Formed in 1999 following a split in the Congress party.

(4) Accepted democracy, Gandhian secularism, equity, social justice and federalism.

g) State Parties

(1) Other than these six parties, most of the major parties of the country are classified by the Election Commission as 'State parties'.

h) Challenges to Political Parties

(1) Lack of Internal Democracy
Challenge of Dynastic Succession
Growing Role of Money and Muscle Power

(2) Meaningful choice

i) How can Parties be reformed?

(1) Recent efforts and suggestions in India

- (a) The Constitution was amended to prevent elected MLAs and MPs from changing parties.
- (b) New law states that if any MLA or MP changes parties, he or she will lose the seat in the legislature.
- (c) The Supreme Court passed an order to reduce the influence of money and criminals.
- (d) The Election Commission passed an order making it necessary for political parties to hold their organisational elections and file their income tax returns.

(2) Some suggestions to reform political parties

- (a) A law should be made to regulate the internal affairs of political parties.
- (b) To give a minimum number of tickets, about one-third, to women candidates.
- (c) There should be state funding of elections.
- (d) There are two other ways in which political parties can be reformed.

B. OUTCOMES OF DEMOCRACY

1. How do we assess democracy's outcomes?

a) Democracy is a better form of government because:

- (1) → It promotes equality among citizens.
- (2) → It enhances the dignity of the individual.
- (3) → It improves the quality of decision-making.
- (4) → It provides a method to resolve conflicts.

(5) → It allows room to correct mistakes.

2. Is the democratic government efficient?

a) Non-democratic rulers do not have to bother about deliberation in assemblies or worry about majorities and public opinion.

b) A democratic government will take more time to follow procedures before arriving at a decision.

(1) → Because it has followed procedures, its decisions may be both more acceptable to the people and more effective.

3. Accountable

a) A citizen who wants to know if a decision was taken through the correct procedures can find this out. This is known as transparency.

4. Legitimate Government

(1) In democracy, governments are elected through regular, free and fair elections.

(2) Laws are made following proper procedures, after much discussion with the representatives of the people.

(3) If people feel that the government has done something which goes against the Constitution, people can challenge it in the Judiciary.

5. Economic growth and development

(1) Between 1950 and 2000, dictatorships had slightly higher rates of economic growth.

(2) Economic growth depends on various factors:

(a) → Size of the population of a country

(b) → Global situation

(c) → Cooperation from other countries

(d) → Economic policies adopted by the country

(e) However, the difference in the rates of economic development between less developed countries with dictatorships and democracies is negligible.

(3) **Reduction of inequality and poverty.**

(a) Democracies are based on political equality, but we find growing economic inequalities.

(4) **Accommodation of social diversity.**

(i) Democracy helps its citizens to lead a peaceful and harmonious life by accommodating various social divisions.

(5) **Dignity and freedom of the citizens.**

(a) Democracy promotes dignity and freedom of the individual.

(i) Democracy - its examination never gets over. A democracy is always striving towards a better goal. •

(b) People constantly demand more benefits in a democracy